1 Investigation on key aspects of mating biology in the mosquito Aedes koreicus

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15 Abstract

16 Aedes koreicus is a mosquito (Diptera: Culicidae) from Northeast Asia with a rapidly 17 expanding presence outside its original native range. Over the years the species has been discovered in several new countries, either spreading after first introduction or remaining 18 19 localised to limited areas. Notably, recent studies have demonstrated the ability of the species 20 to transmit zoonotic parasites and viruses both in the field and in laboratory settings. Combined 21 with its invasive potential, the possible role of Ae. koreicus in pathogen transmission highlights 22 the public health risks of its invasion. In this study, we used a recently established population from Italy to investigate aspects of biology that influence reproductive success in Ae. koreicus: 23

autogeny, mating behaviour, mating disruption by the sympatric invasive species *Aedes albopictus*, and the presence of the endosymbiont *Wolbachia pipientis*.

Our laboratory population did not exhibit autogenic behaviour and required a blood meal to complete its ovarian cycle. When we exposed *Ae. koreicus* females to males of *Ae. albopictus*, we observed repeated attempts at insemination and an aggressive, disruptive mating behaviour initiated by males. Despite this, no sperm was identified in *Ae. koreicus* spermathecae. *Wolbachia* was not detected in this *Ae. koreicus* population and therefore had no effect on *Ae. koreicus* reproduction.

32 Keywords: Aedes koreicus, Hulecoeteomyia koreica, invasive mosquito species, autogeny,
33 satyrization, Wolbachia.

34 Introduction

After its first detection in Belgium in 2008 (Versteirt *et al.*, 2012), the mosquito *Aedes koreicus*, commonly known as the invasive Korean bush mosquito, has invaded and established in several states in Europe and European neighbouring countries (ECDC, 2022). In some areas, such as Italy, the species is currently expanding its distribution (Gradoni *et al.*, 2021; Negri *et al.*, 2021; Arnoldi *et al.*, 2022), but in others, such as Germany, it has shown a relatively low tendency to spread despite suspected repeated introductions (Hohmeister *et al.*, 2021; Kurucz *et al.*, 2022).

While the role of *Ae. koreicus* in arthropod-borne diseases transmission is still largely unclear, the species is known to vector dog heartworm *Dirofilaria immitis* (Filarioidea: Onchocercidae) under laboratory conditions (Feng, 1930; Montarsi *et al.*, 2014), a finding later supported by field evidence of filarial DNA in *Ae. koreicus* sampled near the city of Pécs (Baranya County) in Hungary (Kurucz *et al.*, 2018). *Ae. koreicus* infection with *Wuchereria bancrofti* (Filarioidea: Onchocercidae) has also been documented (Yamada, 1927), and this 48 mosquito may have a role as an intermediate host for Brugia malayi (Filarioidea: 49 Onchocercidae) to infect humans (KCDC, 2007). The potential of A. koreicus to transmit 50 chikungunya virus was demonstrated for the first time under laboratory conditions by 51 Ciocchetta et al. (Ciocchetta et al., 2018). This study showed how virus transmission was 52 temperature-dependent, and results were further confirmed by Jansen et al. (Jansen et al., 53 2021). The same study reported a low vector competence for Zika virus and no transmission 54 of West Nile virus. A few studies have mentioned Ae. koreicus' ability to transmit Japanese 55 encephalitis virus (JEV) in the laboratory and in the field (Miles, 1964; Gutsevich et al., 1971; 56 Takashima & Rosen, 1989). However, JEV was not detected in Ae. koreicus collected in Korea 57 during more recent monitoring activities (Gutsevich et al., 1970; Kim et al., 2005; Kim et al., 58 2007).

59 Even though Ae. koreicus was first detected in Europe more than 14 years ago, its mating 60 biology remains largely unknown. Reproductive success plays a fundamental role in mosquito 61 establishment and population growth (Clements, 1992; Juliano & Lounibos, 2005; Takken et al., 2006) and an assessment of the reproductive biology of Ae. koreicus could assist in 62 63 determining its invasive potential. In this study, we investigated several important aspects that 64 may influence the mating biology and reproductive success of the Korean bush mosquito in 65 Italy, such as autogeny, mating behaviour and competitive mating with a sympatric invasive 66 mosquito species (Aedes albopictus). We also screened the mosquito population used to derive 67 our colony for the presence of the endosymbiont Wolbachia pipientis.

In some hematophagous arthropods, such as mosquitoes, completion of an ovarian cycle and the production of viable offspring can occur in the absence of a blood meal in a process called autogeny (Roubaud, 1929), most likely as a survival strategy when hosts are rare (Lucius *et al.*, 2017). Autogeny is hypothesised to allow the persistence of a population when the presence of vertebrate hosts is low, or to allow for rapid growth of a mosquito population at 73 the start of a season (O'Meara, 1985; Reisen & Milby, 1987). This allows mosquitoes to persist 74 in uncertain environments and rapidly exploit optimal conditions; however, the number of eggs laid might vary considerably compared to eggs laid after a blood meal (O'Meara & Krasnick, 75 76 1970; O'Meara & Edman, 1975; Mulla, 1997). Furthermore, this behaviour may delay contact 77 with infected hosts, and could therefore impact transmission of human pathogenic viruses by 78 mosquito vectors early in the season. Autogeny may be facultative or obligate depending on 79 the species and environmental conditions (O'Meara & Krasnick, 1970; O'Meara & Edman, 80 1975).

81 The autogeny phenotype has been demonstrated both in the Culicinae and Anophelinae 82 mosquitoes (Clements, 2013). Within the Culicinae group, autogeny is commonly reported in 83 the genus Culex (Provost-Javier et al., 2010), and limited levels of autogeny have been 84 observed in numerous species of Aedes mosquitoes (Rioux et al., 1975), including some of the 85 main mosquito threats of this century, Ae. albopictus and Aedes aegypti (Trpis, 1977; Chambers & Klowden, 1994; Mori et al., 2008; Gulia-Nuss et al., 2015; Aardema & 86 87 Zimmerman, 2021). An essential component of autogeny is the female mating status (evidence 88 that sperm transfer occurred): egg development in certain mosquito species does not initiate 89 unless mating occurs, and male accessory gland products can play a central role for oogenesis 90 (O'Meara & Evans, 1976, 1977). The ability to identify sperm in the Ae. koreicus female 91 reproductive tract (mating status) is necessary to identify whether the absence of autogeny is 92 simply the result of non-mated females. It is also fundamental in evaluating mating behaviour, 93 reproductive success, and the subsequent spread of invasive species in a new territory.

The establishment of an exotic species may be hampered by the disruption of conspecific mating by the aggressive mating behaviour of males of different species (Tripet *et al.*, 2011) and by interspecific cross-insemination (satyrization) (Lounibos, 2007; Alto & Lounibos, 2013). Satyrization (Ribeiro & Spielman, 1986) is a form of sterility caused by interspecific mating. For example, the transfer of *Ae. albopictus* male accessory gland product to *Aedes aegypti* females causes them to become refractory to further mating (including with conspecific
males) (Nazni *et al.*, 2009; Tripet *et al.*, 2011; Lima-Camara *et al.*, 2013). Although *Ae. albopictus* males are particularly efficient in satyrizing *Ae. aegypti* females, similar interactions
have been noted between *Ae. albopictus* and other *Aedes* species such as *Aedes polynesiensis*and members of the *Aedes scutellaris* group (Gubler, 1970; Ali & Rozeboom, 1971a, 1971b).

104 Additionally, mosquito reproductive behaviour can be influenced by the presence of the 105 endosymbiotic bacteria Wolbachia pipientis. Wolbachia are small (0.5-1μm), intracellular, αproteobacteria originally identified from the ovaries of *Culex* mosquitoes in 1924 (Hertig & 106 107 Wolbach, 1924) and known to infect the reproductive organs of 40-60% of insect species 108 (Jeyaprakash & Hoy, 2000; Hilgenboecker et al., 2008; De Oliveira et al., 2015; Weinert et al., 109 2015). They can affect host reproduction by increasing the reproductive success of infected 110 females, thus enhancing the bacteria's maternal transmission and changing male sperm 111 structure such that only mating with a male infected by the same bacterial strain will lead to 112 progeny (a mechanism called cytoplasmic incompatibility) (Werren *et al.*, 2008). In some cases Wolbachia can induce parthenogenesis (Stouthamer et al., 1999), and influence fecundity 113 114 (Alexandrov et al., 2007) and oogenesis (Dedeine et al., 2001; Dedeine et al., 2003). Our aim 115 here was to provide the basis for further studies on the reproductive behaviour of Ae. koreicus and its potential to become established when introduced in new territories. 116

117 Methods

118 Determination of autogeny in Aedes koreicus

119 *Aedes koreicus* larvae were obtained from a colony maintained at the QIMR Berghofer 120 Medical Research Institute (QIMRB) (Ciocchetta *et al.*, 2017). Eggs laid on Masonite[®] sticks 121 were hatched in rainwater. Due to the low hatching rate of this species (Ciocchetta *et al.*, 2017), 122 larvae were obtained from colony eggs pooled in order to produce sufficient adults for

experimentation. Pupae developed from larvae after nine days and were sexed using the method
previously described (Ciocchetta *et al.*, 2017). To generate three experimental replicates, male
and female pupae were placed together in three different cages (BugDorm[®] Insect Rearing
Cage, 30 x 30 x 30 cm) at the following initial numbers: cage 1, 161 males - 163 females; cage
2, 161 males - 174 females; cage 3, 161 males - 170 females.

128 The cages of adults were maintained in environmental chambers (Panasonic, Osaka, 129 Japan) as described previously (Ciocchetta et al., 2017). A 10% w/v sucrose solution was 130 provided *ad libitum* and each cage was equipped with one egg collection tray (© 2014 Genfac Plastics Pty Ltd, 18.3 x 15.2 x 6.5 cm) with rainwater and Masonite[®] sticks as oviposition 131 132 substrates (Figure 1). The position of the cages within the environmental chamber was changed 133 twice per week to minimise positional bias. The number of emerging adults was counted, and 134 cages were checked daily for eggs. After three weeks of caging, one of the three cages was 135 randomly chosen (cage 2) to proceed to blood feeding on human volunteers (QIMRB Human 136 Research Ethics Committee approval HREC361). The percentage of fed mosquitoes was 137 recorded. Two weeks after blood feeding (and seven days from the start of oviposition), eggs 138 were collected, counted, and stored in an anti-leak plastic bag. Additionally, 5 female 139 mosquitoes from the blood-fed cage and 10 female mosquitoes from the remaining two cages 140 were killed (using CO₂), and their ovaries were dissected in a drop of phosphate-buffered saline 141 (PBS) on a glass slide at a magnification of 10x in order to identify mature follicles (stage IVb 142 and V) (Christophers, 1911; Clements & Boocock, 1984; Armbruster & Hutchinson, 2002; 143 Hugo et al., 2003; Itina et al., 2014). The viability of a subsample of eggs collected from cage 2 (n= 1189) was measured after 14 days of storage (Ciocchetta et al., 2017) to verify the 144 successful completion of the gonotrophic cycle in that cage. Observation of Masonite[®] sticks 145 146 for presence of eggs in the non-blood-fed cages continued until all adult mosquitoes had died 147 and the absence of autogeny was confirmed.



149 **Figure 1** Egg collection tray with rainwater and Masonite[®] sticks.

150 Conspecific Aedes koreicus mating behaviour

Aedes koreicus pupae were derived from mosquito eggs laid on Masonite[®] sticks and 151 152 sexed according to Ciocchetta et al. (Ciocchetta et al., 2017). 190 males and 240 females were separated into two different BugDorm[®] cages placed in environmental chambers for 153 154 emergence, at the previously described colony rearing temperature and relative humidity 155 (Ciocchetta et al., 2017). Preliminary observations demonstrated that Ae. koreicus mosquitoes 156 mate under conditions of scarce illumination (Silvia Ciocchetta, personal observation). As a 157 result, the light/dark cycle was reversed so that mosquito behaviour could be observed under 158 crepuscular and dark conditions. The observation cage was a modified BugDorm[®] cage with 159 transparent plexiglass used on one side of the cage instead of mesh. Male mosquitoes require 160 a sufficient period of time for genitalia and sperm development before mating (Oliva et al., 161 2014b), whereas females are often receptive as soon as they emerge (Takken *et al.*, 2006). As 162 a result, 6-7-day old virgin males and 2-3-day old virgin females were caged together, and their 163 behaviour recorded. At 12-13 hours intervals, 25 females were aspirated from the experiment 164 cage, anaesthetised with CO₂ and dissected in a drop of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) on a 165 glass slide at 10x magnification. A cover slip was used to rupture the spermathecae and allow 166 for sperm visualisation at an increased magnification of 40x.

167 Preliminary observations of Aedes albopictus and Aedes koreicus mating disruption

168 Aedes koreicus larvae were reared as previously described (Ciocchetta et al., 2017). 169 Aedes albopictus larvae (from a colony established at QIMR from eggs collected on Hammond 170 Island, Torres Strait, Australia, in May 2014) were similarly reared, but at a temperature of 27 171 \pm 1°C. The colonies of both species were synchronised to pupate at the same time. Pupae were individually placed in Falcon[®] tubes containing 5 to 10 ml of rainwater to allow the collection 172 173 of emerging virgin males or females. 3-4 days old Ae. albopictus males (N=27) ready for copula 174 (Oliva et al., 2014b) and 2-3 days old virgin Ae. koreicus females (N=22) were introduced in a BugDorm[®] cage containing a solution of 10% w/v sucrose. The interaction between the two 175 mosquito species was recorded utilising a GoPro[®] Hero 3 camera. After five days, all female 176 177 mosquitoes were anesthetised with CO₂ and the spermathecae were dissected in a drop of saline 178 buffer, crushed under a cover slip and scanned at 40x magnification for the presence of sperm.

179 Wolbachia presence in field-collected Aedes koreicus

180 Field-collected Aedes koreicus sampled during a survey carried out in north-eastern Italy 181 from 2011 to 2015 (Montarsi et al., 2015), form the same population used to derive our OIMRB 182 colony (Ciocchetta et al., 2017), were screened for the presence of Wolbachia pipientis. 183 Females (n=21) collected in Belluno (46°08'44.3"N 12°12'38.0"E) in July 2014, were preserved in RNALater[®] (InvitrogenTM), and stored at -80°C. DNA was extracted using 184 QIAGEN DNeasy[®] Blood and Tissue Kit. The extracted DNA was utilised as a template for 185 the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) targeting the Wolbachia-specific wsp and 16s genes and 186 187 the mosquito housekeeping RpS17 gene, which acted as a positive control for the extraction:

188 (wsp F: 5'- TGGTCCAATAAGTGATGAAGAAAC-3', R: 5'-

189 AAAAATTAAACGCTACTCCA-3'; 16s F: 5'-TTGTAGCCTGCTATGGTATAACT-3',

190 R: 5'- GAATAGGTATGATTTTCATGT-3'; RpS 17 F: 5'-

191 TCCGTGGTATCTCCATCAAGCT-3′, R: 5′-CACTTCCGGCACGTAGTTGTC-3′)

192 (O'Neill et al., 1992; Braig et al., 1998; Cook et al., 2006).

PCR with *wps* primers was performed using a Phusion[®] High-Fidelity PCR Kit with initial denaturation at 98°C for 30 sec, followed by a 34 cycles consisting of 98°C for 10 seconds, 59°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C for 30 seconds and a final extension step at 72°C for 10 minutes. The same protocol was applied with *16s* and *RpS17* primers, but the annealing temperatures were 56°C for *16s* primers and 58°C for *RpS17* primers.

DNA for four *Wolbachia*-positive controls was extracted from *w*Mel-infected *A. aegypti*maintained in the QIMR Berghofer insectary (Ulrich *et al.*, 2016) using the same extraction kit
of the target samples. In each PCR, a sample from an *Ae. aegypti* wildtype colony (QIMRB)
that was negative for *Wolbachia* was also tested. DNA from *Culex sitiens* mosquitoes (n=3)
infected with *Wolbachia* (QIMRB colony) was extracted using QuickExtract[™] DNA
Extraction Solution (Epicentre Technologies Corporation) and tested as an additional positive
control.

205 **Results**

206 Determination of autogeny in Aedes koreicus

207 Proportion of male: female totals were 123:134, and 103:138 in the two non-blood fed 208 cages (cages 1 and 3), and 116:146 in the 3rd, blood fed cage (cage 2). No eggs were observed 209 in the oviposition trays of the three cages for 21 days after co-caging. After this period, a 210 volunteer fed the mosquitoes in the cage designated to be blood fed (97.2% fed, n=109) and 211 oviposition on the Masonite[®] sticks in that cage occurred seven days post-feeding. Mature 212 follicles were observed in all 5 mosquitoes dissected from that cage. No eggs were observed on Masonite[®] sticks in cages 1 and 3, and no mature follicles were found in the female 213 214 mosquitoes dissected from those cages. The percentage of male and female mosquitoes still 215 alive at the time of these observations (28 days after co-caging) were: cage 1= males 8.9% (n 216 = 123), females 59.7% (n = 134); cage 2 = males 44.8% (n = 116), females 67.1% (n = 146); 217 cage 3 = males 25.2% (n = 103), females 71.0% (n = 138). A total of 4,925 eggs were counted 218 under the stereoscope from the Masonite® sticks collected from the blood fed cage; the average 219 eggs/female = 50.25 was consistent with a previously reported fecundity index (Ciocchetta *et* 220 *al.*, 2017).

221 Conspecific Aedes koreicus mating behaviour

222 No sperm was observed in spermathecae from female mosquitoes dissected 12 ± 0.5 and 223 25 ± 0.5 hours after co-caging. Mating activity was observed after 25.5 hours showing *Aedes* 224 koreicus males and females in the act of copula and documented with a smartphone device 225 (Oppo F1 Android smartphone; supplemental file 1: Ae. koreicus mating.mp4). Evidence of 226 motile sperm in Ae. koreicus female spermathecae (Figure 2) was found in 28% of females 227 (n=25) sampled 31 hours after co-caging with males (females were sampled approximately five 228 hours after evidence of mating activity in the cage to allow the sperm a sufficient period to 229 reach the spermathecae (Oliva et al., 2014b).







232 Preliminary observations on Aedes albopictus and Aedes koreicus mating disruption

233 Despite repeated interactions between Aedes koreicus females and Aedes albopictus 234 males (supplemental file 2: Ae. albopictus_Ae.koreicus interaction.mp4), no sperm was 235 detected in the 22 individuals dissected (Figure 3). Differences in the size of the mosquitoes 236 (Ae. koreicus females were visibly bigger than Ae. albopictus males; Figure 4) may have been 237 a possible cause for the failure in interspecific insemination. Although the specific size of each 238 individual was not measured, Ae. koreicus females wing length for individuals reared according 239 to previous work (Ciocchetta et al., 2017) has been reported to be over 3 mm; in their work 240 Pudar et al. (Pudar et al., 2021) reported an Ae. albopictus male wing length of approximately 241 2mm when the species was reared at a temperature close to our experiment (28 ± 1 °C). When 242 reared at the same rearing conditions, these two species maintained their differences in 243 dimensions, with Ae. koreicus bigger in size when compared to Ae. albopictus (Baldacchino et 244 al., 2017), supporting our observations.



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- Figure 3 No evidence of *Ae. albopictus* sperm in *Ae. koreicus* spermathecae (a) before and (b)
- after rupture.



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250 Wolbachia presence in field-collected Ae. koreicus

No *Wolbachia* was identified in the *Aedes koreicus* field samples. The DNA extraction
was validated by running a PCR analysis using *RpS17* housekeeping gene primers for mosquito
DNA (Figure 5-7), and *Wolbachia* was detected by the *wsp* and *16S* primers in all positive
controls.



Figure 5 PCR products produced by amplifying *Ae. koreicus* DNA with oligonucleotide
primers corresponding to *Wolbachia* gene *wsp.* (a) positive controls indicated by the symbol +
(*Ae. aegypti Wolbachia* infected, QIMR Berghofer), *Ae. koreicus* samples lanes 84 to 96; (b) *Ae. koreicus* lanes 97 to 104, positive controls indicated by the symbol + (*Culex sitiens Wolbachia* infected, Chen Wu, QIMR Berghofer), *Ae. aegypti* wildtype *Wolbachia*-free, QIMR
Berghofer.



Figure 6 PCR products produced by amplifying *Ae. koreicus* DNA with oligonucleotide
primers corresponding to *Wolbachia* gene *16S*. (a) positive controls indicated by the symbol +
(*Ae. aegypti Wolbachia* infected, QIMRB), *Ae. koreicus* lanes 84 to 92; (b) *Ae. koreicus* lanes
93 to 104, positive controls indicated by the symbol + (*Culex sitiens Wolbachia* infected, Chen
Wu, QIMRB), *Ae. aegypti* wildtype *Wolbachia*-free, QIMRB.



Figure 7 PCR products produced by amplifying *Ae. koreicus* DNA with oligonucleotide
primers corresponding to the housekeeping gene *RsP17*. (a) positive controls indicated by the
symbol + (*Ae. aegypti Wolbachia* infected, QIMR Berghofer), *Ae. koreicus* lanes 84 to 95; (b) *Ae. koreicus* lanes 96 to 104, positive controls indicated by the symbol + (*Culex sitiens Wolbachia* infected, Chen Wu, QIMR Berghofer), *Ae. aegypti* wildtype *Wolbachia*-free, QIMR
Berghofer.

275 Discussion

Defined as the ability to produce offspring in the absence of a blood meal, autogeny can
influence the vector potential of a mosquito by affecting the abundance or persistence of
vectors, even in the absence of immediate hosts (Reisen & Milby, 1987; Tsuji *et al.*, 1990).
Conversely, autogeny may limit contact with hosts and reduce transmission risks (Spadoni *et al.*, 1974; Reisen & Milby, 1987). Our results suggest that *Ae. koreicus* mosquitoes do not
display this phenotype under the conditions of our experiment. There was no oviposition when

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282 mosquitoes were deprived of a blood source. In early studies with the mosquito Aedes 283 taeniorhynchus, O'Meara et al. (O'Meara & Evans, 1976) showed that mating may increase 284 the levels of autogeny and that the expression of autogeny is correlated to the environmental 285 conditions in which the larval stages develop and the geographical origin of the population 286 (O'Meara, 1979). In Ae. taeniorhynchus, mating was necessary only when larvae were exposed to conditions unfavourable to their development and was otherwise not required for the 287 288 production of viable eggs (O'Meara, 1979). The observation of Ae. koreicus mating behaviour 289 and the detection of sperm in Ae. koreicus spermathecae confirmed that the absence of 290 autogeny was not due to a lack of mosquito mating. Moreover, autogenic populations of Ae. 291 japonicus, a species phylogenetically close to Ae. koreicus, have never been reported in the 292 literature. We hypothesised that Ae. koreicus may be an anautogenous mosquito species; 293 however, although autogeny was not present in the studied colony, the phenotype could still be 294 present in different Ae. koreicus populations, as previously found for instance in Ae. albopictus 295 (Chambers & Klowden, 1994; Mori et al., 2008).

296 The delay of 25.5 hours being observed before mosquito mating could be due to different 297 factors. Although adult female mosquitoes are ready to be inseminated once they emerge, male 298 antennae and genitalia at the moment of imaginal stage emergence are not in the correct 299 morphological conformation to allow copula. Physical changes must occur for the males to 300 become sexually active (Oliva et al., 2014a). These changes include the erection of fibrillar 301 hairs in the antennae, (important for female localisation (Roth, 1948)), and the permanent 180° 302 rotation of terminalia part of the genitalia to correctly orient the male genital structure for 303 mating (Lamb, 1922). In particular, the time required for this rotation varies among mosquito 304 species and can take up to four days, for example, as reported in the species Aedes provocans 305 (Smith & Gadawski, 1994). The time of Ae. koreicus male genitalia rotation is not known, 306 which justifies the choice to cage females with 6-7 days old virgin males. Moreover, mating may be encouraged by behaviours displayed in the wild, such as swarming (Cabrera & Jaffe,
2007), that are challenging to create in a laboratory colony.

309 In this preliminary exploration of Ae. koreicus and Ae. albopictus mating interactions, 310 Ae. albopictus males showed repeated and aggressive mating attempts towards Ae. koreicus 311 but were unable to transfer sperm to Ae. koreicus. The different sizes of the two species might 312 be one explanation for how this has played a role in the outcome of this experiment, with the 313 wing length for females of Ae. koreicus being reported over 3mm and Ae. albopictus male wing 314 length approximately 2mm (Baldacchino et al., 2017; Ciocchetta et al., 2017; Pudar et al., 315 2021). Yet, the lack of sperm doesn't necessarily exclude a satyrization effect produced by Ae. 316 albopictus males, because the transfer of male accessory glands products (responsible for the 317 satyrization effect) may occur even in the absence of sperm in the spermathecae, as 318 demonstrated by Carrasquilla and Lounibos (Carrasquilla & Lounibos, 2015). Although satyrization between these two species seems unlikely, the aggressive mating attempts shown 319 320 by Ae. albopictus males towards Ae. koreicus females could prevent less aggressive Ae. 321 koreicus males from mating, and therefore lead to a decrease in Ae. koreicus numbers in the 322 field.

323 Samples tested for Wolbachia were collected during the early stages of Ae. koreicus 324 invasion in Italy. Wolbachia was not detected in Ae. koreicus from the first established field 325 population in Belluno from which the studied colony was derived. Therefore, the bacterial endosymbiont is unlikely to have affected Ae. koreicus reproductive behaviour in the initial 326 327 establishment of this mosquito in Italy. The absence of Wolbachia in Ae. koreicus has been 328 confirmed by subsequent studies in immature and adult stages sampled in the Province of 329 Trento in 2015 and 2017 (Rosso et al., 2018; Alfano et al., 2019). It should be noted that in our 330 preliminary investigation we tested a small sample (N=21) of Ae. koreicus females; 331 nonetheless, our results suggest that even if present in the mosquito population initially

332 established in Italy, the prevalence of *Wolbachia* was low. Interestingly, a more recent study 333 (Damiani et al., 2022) on samples collected between 2019 and 2020 in several villages in North-East Italy detected Wolbachia in 2 of the 85 females examined. Further research with 334 335 larger sample sizes could help establish whether *Wolbachia* is present at a very low prevalence 336 in the Ae. koreicus population established in Italy or whether the recent discovery is due to 337 introgression (Bargielowski et al., 2015) from other mosquito species carrying the 338 endosymbiont (Wolbachia strains isolated in Ae. koreicus are closely related to the wAlbB 339 strain, one of the two native strains of Ae. albopictus (McMeniman et al., 2009). In the Province 340 of Trento for instance, Ae. albopictus had 2.5% prevalence of Wolbachia (Rosso et al., 2018).

Considering the importance played by reproductive success in ensuring the establishment and growth of invasive mosquito populations during the colonization of new territories, our preliminary results are aimed at informing further studies to assist in determining the invasive potential of *Ae. koreicus* and the public health risk posed in areas of recent introduction.

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348 **Conflict of Interest**

349 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

350 Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the study: SC, FDF and GJD. Collected the data: SC. Analysed the
data: SC. Drafted the manuscript: SC. Reviewed the manuscript: FDF, FM, GC and GJD. All
authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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355 Data Availability

- 356 The data supporting the conclusions of this article are included within the article and its 357 additional files.
- 358 Supporting Information
- Ae. koreicus mating.mp4 mp4 video, 7.92 MB Ae. koreicus males and females in the act
- of copula
- 361 Ae. albopictus_Ae.koreicus interaction.mp4 mp4 video, 3.07 MB Repeated
- 362 interactions between *Ae. koreicus* female and *Ae. albopictus* males

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